Function and evolution of a minimal plastid genome from a nonphotosynthetic parasitic plant

(chloroplast DNA/Epifagus virginiana/translation/transcription/photosynthesis)

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Communicated by Michael T. Clegg, August 3, 1992 (received for review April 15, 1992)

Complete nucleotide sequencing shows that the plastid genome of Epifagus virginiana, a nonphotosynthetic parasitic flowering plant, lacks all genes for photosynthesis and chlororespiration found in chloroplast genomes of green plants. The 70,028-base-pair genome contains only 42 genes, at least 38 of which specify components of the gene-expression apparatus of the plastid. Moreover, all chloroplast-encoded RNA polymerase genes and many tRNA and ribosomal protein genes have been lost. Since the genome is functional, nuclear gene products must compensate for some gene losses by means of previously unsuspected import mechanisms that may operate in all plastids. At least one of the four unassigned protein genes in Epifagus plastid DNA must have a nongenetic and nonbioenergetic function and, thereby, serve as the reason for the maintenance of an active genome. Many small insertions in the Epifagus plastid genome create tandem duplications and presumably arose by slippage mispairing during DNA replication. The extensive reduction in genome size in Epifagus reflects an intensification of the same processes of length mutation that govern the amount of noncoding DNA in chloroplast genomes. Remarkably, this massive pruning occurred with a virtual absence of gene order change.

The known gene products of the ≈150-kilobase (kb) plastid genomes of photosynthetic flowering plants fall into two categories: those that function in gene expression and those with bioenergetic functions (1). The first category includes all RNAs thought to be necessary for gene expression (30 tRNAs and 4 rRNAs), 21 ribosomal proteins, and 4 subunits of RNA polymerase. The bioenergetic genes include 29 photosynthetic and 11 chlororespiratory genes. The functions of a further 12 conserved genes found through complete sequencing of chloroplast genomes (1) remain unknown.

Epifagus virginiana (beechdrops; Orobanchaceae) is a flowering plant that is parasitic on the roots of beech trees and is completely nonphotosynthetic. The plastid DNAs (ptDNAs) of plants such as Epifagus present a unique opportunity to investigate both the evolution of an organelle genome whose primary function (photosynthesis) has been rendered obsolete and the possible role of the plastid genome in metabolic processes other than photosynthesis. Epifagus ptDNA has been shown by Southern blot hybridization to have lost many genes, including all examined bioenergetic genes, but to have retained putatively intact genes encoding components of the genetic apparatus (2). However, sequencing of parts of the genome revealed that some RNA polymerase, ribosomal protein, and tRNA genes have also been deleted (3-5).

We report the complete nucleotide sequence of the 70,028-base-pair (bp) *Epifagus* plastid genome[§] and show that the sets of tRNA, ribosomal protein, and RNA polymerase genes are all grossly incomplete compared to photosynthetic spe-

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cies such as tobacco (1). Nevertheless, the genome is functional: transcripts of plastid rRNA and protein genes have been identified (ref. 2; S. Ems and J.D.P., unpublished data), and the maintenance of many intact and conserved genes implies that mRNAs are translated. We hypothesize that the *Epifagus* plastid genome has remained active after the loss of photosynthesis because one or a few of its protein genes is involved in a nonbioenergetic process.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Libraries covering the entire mapped (2) plastid genome of E. virginiana were made by cloning restriction fragments and PCR products in pBluescript and λ DASH II vectors. Complete sequence from both strands was obtained using exonuclease III deletion subclones, restriction subclones, or internal primers. Sequences of all PCR products were verified from at least two independent clones.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

DNA Loss from the *Epifagus* Plastid Genome. Massive gene loss has resulted in a plastid genome with a sequence complexity of 47.3 kb in *Epifagus* (Fig. 1), 36% of that (130.5 kb) in tobacco (1). The number of genes present is similarly reduced from 113 to 42 (Table 1). There are intact and likely functional genes for 21 proteins, 17 tRNAs, and 4 rRNAs, in addition to 14 pseudogenes. All bioenergetic genes have been lost; only 6 grossly truncated pseudogenes remain from the 29 photosynthetic and 11 chlororespiratory genes known in green plant ptDNAs (Fig. 1 and Table 1). Sequence identity between *Epifagus* and tobacco ptDNA-encoded proteins varies from 60% in the *matK* and *orf1738* products to 93% in ribosomal proteins L2 and S12.

Deletions have occurred throughout the genome. Large deletions (0.3-11.5 kb) map to at least 27 loci, resulting in truncated pseudogenes or in the loss of entire genes or groups of genes. However, the presence of multiple short deletions internal to some pseudogenes (3) and the predominance of small (<20 bp) deletions in the inverted repeat (IR) region (Fig. 2; see below) suggest that the large deleted regions are in fact the result of accumulated smaller deletions. We estimate the actual number of events responsible for the size reduction to have been in the hundreds, if not thousands. Remarkably, despite these many deletions, the genes and pseudogenes retained are found in the same relative order and orientation as in tobacco ptDNA, the only exception being the inversion of $trnL_{UAG}$ in Epifagus.

Abbreviations: ptDNA, plastid DNA; IR, inverted repeat; SC, single copy.

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[§]The sequence reported in this paper has been deposited in the GenBank data base (accession no. M81884).

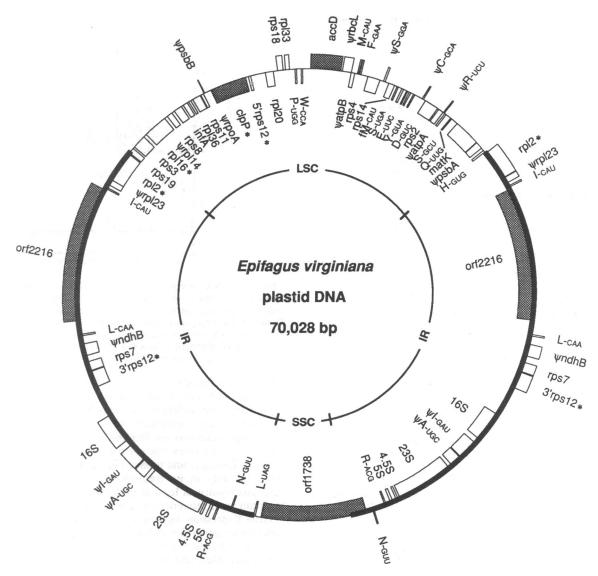


Fig. 1. Gene organization of the *E. virginiana* plastid chromosome. The IR of 22,735 bp divides the rest of the circular genome into large (LSC; 19,799 bp) and small (SSC; 4759 bp) SC regions. Genes drawn inside the circle are transcribed clockwise. tRNA genes are identified by the one-letter amino acid code and their anticodon sequence. Pseudogenes are marked " ψ ." Asterisks indicate genes containing introns. The four genes that are not known to be involved in gene expression are shaded.

The greatest extent of deletion is in the single-copy (SC) regions: the large (19.8 kb) and small (4.8 kb) SC regions are 23% and 26%, respectively, of the size of their tobacco counterparts, whereas the IR (22.7 kb) is 90% of the tobacco size. The conservation of IR size, relative to the drastic changes in SC regions, could be due to two factors. (i) The fraction of deletions in the IR that are evolutionarily acceptable may be lower, because the IRs of photosynthetic plants contain a relatively high proportion of nonbioenergetic genes (1). (ii) The underlying rate at which deletion mutations are generated may be lower in the IR in all species. A precedent for a reduced mutation rate is that the rate of silent nucleotide substitutions in IR genes of photosynthetic plants is 3- to 4-fold lower than the rate in SC genes (6). This is also seen in comparisons between Epifagus and tobacco: the estimated numbers of synonymous substitutions per site are 0.50 ± 0.02 for SC genes (ranging from 0.24 in rps18 to 0.67 in the SC portion of orf1738) and 0.12 ± 0.01 for IR genes (ranging from 0.08 in 3'-rps12 to 0.16 in the IR part of orf1738). However, the proportion of DNA that is noncoding (including introns and pseudogenes) is fairly constant between IR and SC regions and between Epifagus and tobacco (between 36 and 44% in all cases). The Epifagus plastid genome is, therefore,

no more streamlined than that of tobacco, and the IR of *Epifagus* is no less streamlined than its SC regions, which suggests that an equilibrium between levels of DNA deletion and insertion has been reached throughout the genome.

The slow rate of evolution of the IR permits a fine-scale analysis of the pattern of length mutation in this region. An outgroup sequence was used so that insertions could be distinguished from deletions in the Epifagus and tobacco lineages. Unfortunately, the only other angiosperm whose entire IR has been sequenced is rice (1); a dicot such as spinach would have been preferable. The use of a distant outgroup means that some information on length mutations is lost because of superimposed events. The analysis (Fig. 2) shows a greatly increased incidence of both insertions and deletions in the Epifagus lineage. The data in Fig. 2 are a composite of coding and noncoding regions and include genes such as *ndhB* for which the *Epifagus* locus is a pseudogene. Of the 84 deletions in the IR of Epifagus (Fig. 2), only 14 (17%) involve the loss of coding DNA (resulting in pseudogenes) and, therefore, would certainly not have been permissible in tobacco. Similarly, only 8 (15%) of the insertions in Epifagus disrupt genic sequences. However, it is difficult to assess the selective consequences of the many small-length

Table 1. Gene content of Epifagus ptDNA compared to tobacco

Present	Deleted or pseudoger	ne
Ril	osomal RNA genes	
16S, 23S, 4.5S, 5S	_	

Transfer RNA genes

$trnD_{GUC}$, $trnE_{UUC}$, $trnF_{GAA}$,	$\psi trnA_{UGC}$, $\psi trnC_{GCA}$,
trnH _{GUG} , trnI _{CAU} , trnL _{CAA} ,	$trnG_{GCC}$, $trnG_{UCC}$,
trnL _{UAG} , trnM _{CAU} , trnN _{GUU} ,	ψtrnI _{GAU} , trnK _{UUU} ,
trnP _{UGG} , trnQ _{UUG} , trnR _{ACG} ,	$trnL_{UAA}$, $\psi trnR_{UCU}$,
trnS _{GCU} , trnS _{UGA} , trnW _{CCA} ,	$\psi trnS_{GGA}$, $trnT_{GGU}$,
trnY _{GUA} , trnfM _{CAU}	trnTugu, trnVgAC, trnVuAC

Ribosomal protein and initiation factor genes

rps2, rps3, rps4, rps7, rps8, rps11, rps12, rps14, rps18, rps19, rp12, rp116, rp120, rp133, rp136, infA

rps15, rps16, ψrp114, rp122, ψrp123, rp132

RNA polymerase and maturase genes

matK

ψrpoA, rpoB, rpoC1, rpoC2

Photosynthetic and chlororespiratory genes

watpA, watpB, atpE, atpF, atpH, atpI, ndhA, wndhB, ndhC, ndhD, ndhE, ndhF, ndhG, ndhH, ndhI, ndhJ, ndhK, psaA, psaB, psaC, psaI, psaJ, wpsbA, wpsbB, psbC, psbD, psbE, psbF, psbH, psbI, psbI, psbK, psbL, psbM, psbN, petA, petB, petD, petG, wrbcL

Other protein genes

clpP, accD, orf1738, orf2216

orf29, orf31, orf34, orf62, orf168, orf184, orf229, orf313

Pseudogenes are indicated by ψ . Epifagus orf 1738 and orf 2216 are homologs of tobacco orf 1901 (4) and orf 2280, respectively.

mutations in RNA genes and introns, so we cannot say for certain whether the increased number of events in *Epifagus* is solely due to the loss of photosynthesis or to an increased rate of production (rather than acceptance) of length mutations as well. An increase in the rate of length mutation in *Epifagus* ptDNA would be in keeping with its increased rate of nucleotide substitution (refs. 3, 5, and 7; see below).

Approximately 30% (8 out of 27 events ≥4 bp) of the insertions in the Epifagus IR involve the exact tandem duplication of short sequences, typically 5 bp long. A further 9 insertions involve imperfect tandem repeats with a single mismatch. The 16-bp insert indicated in Fig. 2 involves a quadruplication of a 5- to 6-bp sequence in exon 1 of $\psi trn I_{GAU}$ (5). None of the deletions examined involve the simple loss of such a repeated sequence, although two deletions in Epifagus (56 and 167 bp; ref. 5) are of sequences that are flanked by 6- and 12-bp direct repeats, respectively, in tobacco. An association between short tandem duplications and length mutations in ptDNA has been reported in studies on chloroplast DNAs (8, 9). However, the use of an outgroup sequence demonstrates that this association is due primarily to the formation of tandem duplications rather than the deletion of preexisting repeats. These duplications presumably arise by slippage mispairing of strands during DNA replication (8, 9). Insertions of tandem repeats are also evident in pseudogenes in SC regions of Epifagus ptDNA (3).

Fig. 2 shows that the pattern of DNA deletion from the IRs of *Epifagus* and tobacco is roughly trimodal, consisting of (i)

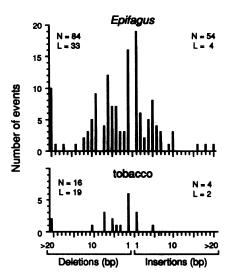


FIG. 2. DNA insertions and deletions in the IR regions of *Epifagus* and tobacco ptDNAs. The total numbers (N) and mean length (L, in base pairs) of events in each species are indicated. Sequences from *Epifagus*, tobacco (1), and the outgroup rice (1) were aligned using CLUSTAL with a forced topology and adjusted by eye to give an overall alignment of length 17,618 characters. Gaps were then counted by computer and checked manually.

single-base deletions, (ii) short deletions of <20 bp occurring in an approximately normal distribution centered around 6 bp, and (iii) large deletions that may be several hundred base pairs long where permitted by natural selection. Some of these large deletions are flanked by short direct-repeat sequences. There does not seem to be any major difference between *Epifagus* and tobacco in the mechanism(s) of deletion, but only in its frequency; the higher frequency in *Epifagus* results, at least in part, from the lifting of the need to retain such sequences as photosynthetic genes.

Gene Expression Apparatus. The Epifagus plastid genome lacks intact genes for all four plastid-encoded subunits of an RNA polymerase; only a truncated pseudogene for rpoA remains (Table 1 and Fig. 1). Since the genome is transcribed (ref. 2; S. Ems and J.D.P., unpublished data), an alternative RNA polymerase (presumably nuclear-encoded) must be active in Epifagus plastids, and it seems probable that two polymerases are normally responsible for transcription in chloroplasts (for discussion, see ref. 3). Loss of the ptDNAencoded RNA polymerase might necessitate a change in plastid promoter organization, and examination of the sequences of probable promoter regions in Epifagus indicates that changes have occurred. There are only four intact genes (clpP, trnE, rps2, and rps4) in the large SC region of Epifagus ptDNA for which transcription start sites have been mapped in any photosynthetic dicot (usually spinach). The proposed eubacterial-type (10) -35 and -10 promoter regions of all four genes have either diverged or been deleted in Epifagus, suggesting that the parasite uses different promoters. This could be addressed experimentally by mapping transcription start sites in vivo. For clpP and trnE, similarity between Epifagus and tobacco begins a few nucleotides upstream of the inferred transcription start site, whereas for rps2 and rps4 the former start site has apparently been deleted. Only in the IR region, where most intergenic sequences have been retained. can homologs of chloroplast promoters be identified (and even there the rRNA promoter has been disrupted; ref. 5).

Of the 21 ribosomal protein genes in tobacco ptDNA, 15 remain intact in *Epifagus*, 4 have been completely deleted, and 2 are pseudogenes (Table 1 and Fig. 1). The sequences of these genes and the overall evolution of the plastid translational apparatus in *Epifagus* are discussed in detail in ref. 7.

Since the products of at least 2 of the missing ribosomal protein genes (rps15 and rpl22) are likely to bind to rRNA (11, 12) and since S15 is required for early stages of ribosome assembly in Escherichia coli (11), it is unlikely that Epifagus plastid ribosomes can function without these proteins or some sort of replacements. These 6 genes may have migrated to the Epifagus nuclear genome, in the same way that rps16, rpl21, rpl22, and rpl23 are thought to have been transferred in other plant lineages, but such widespread gene transfer in a single lineage would be without precedent (7).

Two other genes in Epifagus ptDNA are thought to encode genetic proteins: infA (translation initiation factor 1; see ref. 7) and matK (an intron maturase). In photosynthetic plants, matK is located within the group II intron of the tRNA^{Lys} gene, but in Epifagus, matK is free-standing and the flanking intron and exon sequences have been lost (Fig. 1). The retention of matK suggests that its putative maturase product assists in splicing of other group II introns besides the one in which matK normally resides (C.W.M., K.H.W., and J.D.P., unpublished data). Epifagus ptDNA contains 6 group II introns that might be substrates for this activity, including the trans-spliced intron 1 of rps12 (Fig. 1). The 15 other introns (1 group I and 14 group II) found in tobacco ptDNA are located in genes that have been lost from Epifagus ptDNA.

Each of the three sequenced chloroplast genomes encodes 30 or 31 tRNAs that are sufficient to translate all sense codons by means of fourfold wobble in some anticodons (1, 13). Epifagus ptDNA, however, contains only 17 intact tRNA genes, which appears too few to support translation using the 20 amino acids (for details, see ref. 7). There is no plastidencoded tRNA species for 6 amino acids (alanine, cysteine, glycine, lysine, threonine, and valine), and 1 isoaccepting species has been lost for 4 other amino acids (Table 1). Nevertheless, all 61 sense codons are used in Epifagus protein genes and their frequency of use gives no indication of avoidance of the codons for which there are no tRNA species. Of the 7293 codons in the 21 Epifagus protein genes, 3117 (43%) have no plastid-encoded cognate tRNA (7). This is almost identical to the frequency (42%) at which these codons occur in the homologs of these genes in tobacco. Likewise, the proportions of alanine, cysteine, glycine, lysine, threonine, and valine in Epifagus plastid-encoded proteins are not significantly lower than those in their tobacco counterparts. The simplest explanation of these observations is that *Epifagus* plastid ribosomes have access to a full set of tRNAs, presumably as a result of tRNA import from the cytoplasm (3, 7). If this is true of *Epifagus*, it is likely also true of photosynthetic species.

Rates of Molecular Evolution. Overall, the rate of molecular evolution in the *Epifagus* plastid genome is accelerated. As anticipated, the loss of photosynthesis has led to the widespread deletion of genes in what is ordinarily a conservative molecule (14). More unexpectedly, phylogenetic trees drawn from sequences of three sets of translational components (ribosomal proteins, rRNAs, and pooled tRNAs) consistently point to faster evolution in *Epifagus* than in tobacco, by a factor of between 3 and 8. These results are presented in detail elsewhere (5, 7) and are interpreted to reflect an increase in the rate of both production and fixation of point mutations (7), the latter due to reduced selective constraints on a translational apparatus that now produces only a few nongenetic proteins (at most four).

Parsimony analysis of amino acid sequences shows accelerated evolution in *Epifagus* for three nontranslational genes: clpP (for which the *Epifagus* branch in a phylogenetic tree is 2.8-fold longer than the tobacco branch), matK (1.9-fold), and orf2216 (4.1-fold). These accelerations are not so easily rationalized, in part because the functions of these proteins are poorly understood. For two other genes (accD and orf1738), the *Epifagus* and tobacco branch lengths are essentially equal.

Is the Epifagus Plastid Genome Functional? Our analysis of the structure and evolution of Epifagus ptDNA has been carried out under the hypothesis that the genome is active and that the intact genes are expressed, but the loss of all RNA polymerase and many translational genes from the genome must raise some doubts as to whether it is in fact functional. Transcription of all eight examined rRNA and protein genes in Epifagus has, however, been detected by Northern blot analysis and by sequencing PCR products derived from spliced plastid transcripts (ref. 2; S. Ems and J.D.P., unpublished data). In addition, the evident operation of selective constraints on the genome enables us to make the following three strong evolutionary arguments in favor of its being functional.

(i)Skewed deletions. If the Epifagus plastid genome were nonfunctional, we would expect deletions to be dispersed randomly around the genome, with the possible exception of a reduced incidence in the IR. This clearly has not been the case. For example, Epifagus ptDNA contains 9.1 kb of ribosomal protein gene sequences (including pseudogenes and introns), which is 80% of the amount in tobacco, whereas only 5% of photosynthetic sequences have been retained (22.2 kb in tobacco and 1.2 kb in Epifagus).

(ii) Maintenance of large open reading frames. All of the protein pseudogenes in Epifagus ptDNA (Table 1 and Fig. 1) contain numerous mutations (nonsense mutations, frameshifts, large truncations, and internal deletions), any of which alone would be sufficient to inactivate a gene. In contrast, the two largest genes in Epifagus ptDNA are 1738 and 2216 codons. It is impossible that open reading frames of these sizes could have been maintained intact in the face of extensive sequence divergence from tobacco (40% amino acid divergence for orf1738 and 16% for orf2216) without selective filtering-out of deleterious mutations. For example, Epifagus orf1738 differs from its tobacco homolog by 50 insertions/deletions (4) and 1253 nucleotide substitutions, none of which results in a frameshift or a stop codon.

(iii) Conservation of genes in parasites. E. virginiana and Conopholis americana are members of the entirely nonphotosynthetic family Orobanchaceae and share the loss of photosynthetic and chlororespiratory genes (ref. 15; S. R. Downie, C. W. dePamphilis, and J.D.P., unpublished data). All DNA sequence divergence between Epifagus and Conopholis ptDNAs represents events that have occurred in nonphotosynthetic lineages. Therefore, if these genomes are functional, gene sequences should be better conserved than those of intergenic spacers and pseudogenes, whereas if the ptDNAs of these plants are "pseudogenomes," all regions of the genomes should have diverged to a similar extent. Comparison of the rRNA operons of Conopholis (16) and Epifagus (5) shows that the rRNA genes are conserved to a much greater degree than the intergenic spacer regions (including two tRNA pseudogene loci). This is true for both point mutations (3.2% nucleotide divergence in 4.5 kb of rRNA genes and 13.4% in 0.6 kb of intergenic spacers) and length mutations (3.8 length mutations per kb in rRNA genes and 34.4 length mutations per kb in spacer DNA). From this it is clear that the sequences of the rRNA genes are being constrained by natural selection, which can only be because they are functional.

Raison d'Être of the Genome and its Translation. The genetic apparatus of Epifagus ptDNA must be maintained to express at least one protein with a nonbioenergetic function that is essential even in a parasite. Without such a function, there would be no reason to express any gene. In addition to photosynthesis, plastids are the site of numerous metabolic processes, including the biosynthesis of amino acids, fatty acids, tetrapyrroles, isoprenoids, pyrimidine nucleotides, and vitamin B₁; the reduction of nitrite and sulfate; starch metabolism; and glycolysis (17). No genes involved in these or other nonbioenergetic processes have been mapped to the plastid genome in angiosperms, but one or more of the four

unassigned protein genes retained in Epifagus ptDNA (Table 1) must have such a function. Homologs for these four genes have not been described in Chlamydomonas ptDNA, so it is not yet possible to investigate their functions genetically. Some of the eight conserved open reading frames present in tobacco ptDNA but absent from Epifagus (Table 1) may also have nonbioenergetic roles, but ones that have become defunct in a parasite. Several nonbioenergetic proteins, such as components of amino acid and sulfur metabolism, are encoded by ptDNAs of bryophytes or algae (14).

By assuming that none of the proteins of the gene-expression apparatus has an unrecognized nongenetic function, there are only four genes in Epifagus ptDNA that are even candidates for being the raison d'être of the genome and its translational apparatus (Fig. 1). The functions of the two largest genes (orf2216 and orf1738) are completely unknown, although a chromoplast-specific role has been proposed for the former in tomato (20). The third gene accD encodes the plastid homolog (21) of the β subunit of the carboxyltransferase component of E. coli acetyl-CoA carboxylase (22), which catalyzes the first committed step in fatty acid synthesis. The fourth gene clpP encodes the plastid homolog of the proteolytic subunit of the ATP-dependent Clp protease of E. coli (23). The function of plastid Clp protease—in processing, turnover, or even import of plastid proteins—is unknown, but this gene is a second strong candidate for the focus of the selective pressure that maintains the whole genome.

The most severe but least well understood case of a degenerate plastid genome is a 35-kb genome of unknown function in the malarial parasite Plasmodium and other members of the protist phylum Apicomplexa, which is probably derived from the plastid genome of dinoflagellates (24). A more similar situation to Epifagus is that of the nonphotosynthetic alga Astasia longa, whose plastid genome resembles that of the photosynthetic Euglena gracilis but has lost most photosynthetic genes and is only half the size (73 kb instead of 145 kb; ref. 25). Complete sequences are not available for the Astasia and Euglena plastid genomes, so it is not yet known whether Astasia lacks any gene-expression components. However, many intact translational genes have been identified in the 50% of Astasia ptDNA that has been sequenced, without any evidence for pseudogenes or missing translational genes (the rRNA gene spacer in Astasia ptDNA lacks the trnI and trnA genes present in all other plastid rRNA operons, including that of Euglena, but these genes have recently been found elsewhere in the Astasia genome; refs. 26 and 27 and W. Hachtel, personal communication). One clearly important difference in Astasia as compared to Epifagus is that the alga retains and expresses the CO₂fixation gene rbcL (28). Also, Astasia and Euglena contain several, probably nongenetic, protein genes that are absent from angiosperm ptDNAs (26), and conversely, homologs of clpP, accD, orf1738, and orf2216 have not been found in Euglena (whose ptDNA is mostly sequenced) or Astasia. Given all these gene content differences, the primary function(s) of the Astasia plastid genome is probably different from that of Epifagus.

The results from *Epifagus* show clearly that the products of angiosperm ptDNA have function(s) in addition to photosynthesis, chlororespiration, and gene expression. The plastid genome is still essential in this photosynthesis-deficient plant, unlike the mitochondrial genome in respirationdeficient mutants of yeast (29). Curiously, of the four genes remaining in Epifagus ptDNA that are not known to have genetic functions (Fig. 1), three (accD, orf1738, and orf2216) have no homologs in rice ptDNA (1), although they are present in other dicots and in the bryophyte Marchantia (1, 4). Their products must either be unnecessary in rice (though necessary in Epifagus and most other plants) or else the genes have been relocated to the nucleus. clpP is thus the only gene held in common by Epifagus and rice that is not part of the gene-expression apparatus. This raises the possibility that if clpP (and trnE) could be functionally relocated to the nuclear genome, a parasitic plant could exist without any ptDNA. In this regard, we note that Epifagus and the Orobanchaceae represent one of at least six lineages of flowering plants in which photosynthesis has been lost (30) and that the fate of ptDNA in these other lineages is unknown. Complete loss of a plastid genome would represent the final step in the reduction of gene content from cyanobacteria (>1000 genes not involved in gene expression) to chloroplasts (>50 genes) to the *Epifagus* plastid (1-4 genes).

We thank S. Ems, D. Katz-Downie, J. Donello, M. Drummond, J. Olsen, and K. Scott for technical assistance; C. dePamphilis, S. Downie, and S. Baldauf for helpful discussion; W. Hachtel for unpublished data; and the National Institutes of Health and the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation for support.

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The absence of RNA polymerase genes means that plastid trnE, which is intact in Epifagus and needed for mitochondrial heme synthesis (18), can serve as the raison d'être of the genome but not of the translational apparatus too. The situation of a nontranslated plastid genome retained solely because of trnE may exist for the grossly deleted genomes of certain pollen-derived albino plants from rice and other cereals (19).